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ABSTRACT

Eight guidelines for teaching students to cope with change are included in this handbook, which is directed at teachers, student teachers, supervisors of instruction, and curriculum specialists. They include a) providing time for thinking about and dealing with change, b) knowing oneself and one's values, c) setting realistic goals for personal and vocational ends, d) learning to see change trends and anticipating important change events, e) utilizing a positive approach to the flow of change, f) analyzing the merits of that which is new or different, g) working with and building on what one accepts as a result of the analysis of that which is new or different, and h) developing the capacity for tolerance. Following a discussion of the guidelines and their rationale, sample classroom activities are presented and explained in detail. A short bibliography is given for each of the guidelines. (HMD)

TO COPE WITH THE CURRENT: GUIDELINES AND ACTIVITIES FOR LEARNING TO DEAL WITH CHANGE

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U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH,
EDUCATION & WELFARE
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Foreword

To rephrase the linguist Neils Bohr, students live suspended in change. It is all around them, and as has been said about the weather, everyone talks about it but nobody does anything! The intention of this bulletin is to rectify that. Dr. Martin's purpose is not only to increase teachers' and students' awareness of the inclusiveness of change in their lives but also to offer some specific ways in which teachers can help students to cope with change.

With *To Cope with the Current*, the Association departs from the emphases of previous bulletins. Certainly, however, one of the major strengths of this bulletin is that it is based on the thinking of practicing teachers who are always on the lookout for the means to do an ever more competent job—in this case, in a relatively unexplored but increasingly crucial area. One need only read the daily newspaper to see the constancy of change that impinges on all our lives.

The guidelines which are the core of Dr. Martin's presentation and which may be "built-in to" students through activities such as those described should effectively enable young people to deal with the waves of change in both the present and the future. Presumably, teacher educators will be interested in getting these guidelines and activities into the hands of teachers and student teachers for their benefit and primarily for the increased competency of students in classrooms across America.

We are indebted to Elizabeth Alvis, Marion Fitzpatrick, Sandra O'Connor, and Mary Kent Norton who worked with Dr. Martin and to the Communications Subcommittee for guiding the preparation of the manuscript.

Chandler Barbour, *Chairman*
ATE Communications Committee
1972-1973

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Introduction

To Cope with the Current is a charge extended to teachers, student teachers, supervisors of instruction, and curriculum builders. It is offered from experience, reading, and thinking that reveal an increased need for students to learn how to work with change while little is being done in classrooms to meet that need.

This bulletin is organized for quick access to information. Chapter 1 is a statement of background and rationale. Then eight guidelines each accompanied by a brief explanation or elaboration are presented, in Chapter 2, and several techniques for building in and strengthening the guideline. Chapter 3 offers, in alphabetical order, a more comprehensive review of these techniques for or in classroom settings. With this additional information a teacher should have sufficient understanding to adapt and adopt the activities for his or her own instructional purpose. In the postscript, suggestions are offered on how and when to use the guidelines. An annotated bibliography concludes the bulletin. It includes sources, listed by guideline, for further information on techniques discussed and references that relate generally or specifically to coping with change.

Collectively, my colleagues and I speak from a point of view that includes the thinking of a teacher for the home-bound, a substitute teacher, a member of an innovation and support team that aids teachers in curriculum and instruction, and elementary, secondary, and university level instructors. To our knowledge, this work stands alone; nowhere else is there assembled a collection of pertinent guidelines for coping with change with activities recommended to inculcate them in students. We hope our effort will be contagious. We hope these guidelines and activities will provide at least a point of departure for teachers at all levels to involve "cope-ability" in their curriculums. And we hope, in the final analysis, that students will increase in their abilities to recognize and contend successfully with "the roaring current of change that overturns our institutions, shifts our values, and shrivels our roots."¹

W. R. M.

¹ Gropper, Esther C., "The Disenchanted Turn to Hesse." *English Journal* 61: 980-981; October 1972.

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Why Study Change and How To Cope with It?

One of the most striking features of contemporary life is the explosive rate of change and the concomitant need for receptivity to it. As Grant Venn points out in *Man, Education, and Work*, "it is not simply a case of new sets of social and economic relationships replacing old ones, but the new ones themselves being replaced at a faster and faster rate, with only those adapting to change surviving. This concept of change is not new; what is new is the change in the rate of change."¹ For example, "scientific knowledge, is doubling every decade and if [today's educated man] doesn't expand his knowledge systematically, he will be lost by 1991."² Alvin Toffler, in his best-selling book *Future Shock*, which gave a name to at least one dimension of the change reality, contends that there will be no letup in the acceleration of change in our lives or in those of future generations. Changes in the last half of the lifetime of a person now fifty years of age, for instance, are likely to be as great or greater than those of the preceding fifty thousand years. The person able to deal satisfactorily with the constance of change must, in the words of one of America's most distinguished psychologists, Carl Rogers, find a rhythm in his life between flow and stability, between changingness and structure, between anxiety and temporary security. Stability for this "Person of Tomorrow" is only a brief period for the consolidation of learning before moving on to more change. He always exists in this rhythm of process.³

The pervasiveness (and problem) of continuing change, however, is also the challenge of change. When forced to develop new, more efficient methods of organizing and handling information, technology offered computers, micro-image devices, and combinations of the two. In recognizing government's need for forecasting in an attempt to assess such highly critical questions as "What is the likelihood of nuclear war?" business developed think tanks—witness the RAND Corporation of Santa Monica, California. As government itself becomes sufficiently concerned with looking at and anticipating the social and economic effects of pollution and other "new" developments, it makes plans to establish a congressional Office of Technology Assessment. For education, in this arena where the frontiers of today become the familiar terri-

¹ Published by American Council on Education, 1964. As quoted in Farrell, Edmund J., *Deciding the Future*. Urbana, Ill.: National Council of Teachers of English, 1971. p. 6.

² Bell, Terrel H. "Year 1991" *American Education* 7: 25; January-February 1971.

³ As quoted from a commencement address given by Carl Rogers at Sanoma State College, California, June 7, 1969, in Greer, Mary and Rubinstein, Bonnie, *Will the Real Teacher Please Stand Up?* Pacific Palisades, Calif: Goodyear Publishing Co., 1972 p. 220.

tories of tomorrow and tomorrows can be measured in minutes, the lesson is clear. Education's prime objective, states Toffler, must be "to increase the individual's 'cope-ability,' the speed and economy with which he can adapt to continual change."⁴ The charge, to education is in essence, to build for today Rogers' "Person of Tomorrow." For current cope-ability must be considered along with future cope-ability as an indispensable necessity for students caught up in the hectic current of change that flows through and around their lives.

Yet how are today's students prepared to deal with the new or different in all the expanding (or even traditional) human endeavors in which they find themselves increasingly involved? In general, their skills, understandings, and attitudes for coping dynamically and effectively with what is often mind-reeling change have not been developed. The strategic importance of teaching to strengthen human resources for "coping" has not been realized, or at least not implemented. Curriculum guides, to illustrate, rarely suggest training for dealing with change either here and now or in the future.⁵ Class text materials rarely offer specific help to teachers or students, especially with regard to teaching the latter to deal effectively with the immediate and constant change in their lives.⁶ Few teachers are trained for instructing their students in cope-ability.⁷

Dramatically, then, more emphasis on cope-ability education is needed! Especially lacking is an instructional thrust to assist students in dealing with the influx of change as it occurs in their daily lives. It is in the school, quite obviously, where many change situations occur or are even forced on pupils: from developing an interest in a new friend to dealing with set theory, from adjusting to a different teacher to joining a peer popular club, from trying marijuana to attempting an unfamiliar sport. Also within the culture of the school, formal education in cope-ability can be experienced. This education need not come, if at all, through trial and error. Rather, it can be fostered by a trained professional in the course of his or her interaction with pupils during the school year. Cope-ability can be learned, perhaps, in the real and

⁴ Toffler, Alvin, *Future Shock*. New York: Bantam Books, 1971. p. 403. (Originally published by Random House, 1970.)

⁵ The Brecksville City School District, Brecksville, Ohio, and Melbourne High School, Melbourne, Florida, are two of the noteworthy exceptions, with their "thinking of the future" programs.

⁶ The University of Massachusetts School of Education offers some resources of value for use by classroom teachers. These include a comprehensive *Future Studies Bibliography*, a *Future Studies Directory* listing many "futures" organizations and professional futurists, and a *Future Studies Newsletter* which informs readers about promising innovations and new literature in the futuristics field. *The Futurist*, a journal of forecasts, trends, and ideas about the future, published by the World Future Society, P.O. Box 30369, Washington, D.C., is also available as a resource for classroom use.

⁷ Some have learned, through self-teaching or with the aid of consultants like Alvin Toffler, to help their pupils use scientific thinking to extrapolate trends or draw analogies with the past to predict the future. Simulation games, science fiction studies, future "histories," trend analysis, and the Delphi technique are among the activities that train students (and teachers) in developing a way of thinking that will help them anticipate, and cope with, what they may be faced with tomorrow. (A helpful discussion of these materials as well as an interesting bibliography is offered in "Futuristics: Crystal Ball for Curriculum." *Nation's Schools* 89:59-63; March 1972.)

simulated situations of the school in a more organized and efficient, if not effective, way than in any other place. In fact, the author would argue that cope-ability education is a prime task of the school. To learn is to change. Education can be defined as a process that changes the behavior of the learner. Should not the schools, then, also provide some training in coping with the change it is their basic responsibility to produce? The schools have the students; their interest—if realized and made apparent—is there. Teachers have or can make the opportunities to educate for change; certainly the need is evident. (Anyone with reservations might do well to read *Future Shock*.) What remains is interest and commitment on the part of teachers and help for them to become better equipped for teaching students to cope with change.

A package of process ideas can serve to arm teachers with what they might teach in the area of coping with change and may even whet their appetites for further action research. The process ideas (guidelines) offered in this booklet are prepared for students to learn and to work with as a major part of their growing change-coping capacity. They can be "built-in" by an interested teacher making use of the activities suggested for each guideline. (More help for teachers can be found in the resources listed in the annotated bibliography.) Teachers are encouraged not only to teach the guidelines but also to revise and add to them. Thereby, they too can learn more about cope-ability and its teaching. It is helpful to keep in mind that the *total* package of eight guidelines is important.⁸ All should be taught, although any portion thereof can still contribute to student proficiency in dealing with change.

An end result of cope-ability teaching, for educators at all levels, might be stimulation to take an increasingly active role in this crucial aspect of the classroom curriculum. It is to be hoped that they will also charge themselves to continue to think about what they are doing to help students gain the skills, processes, concepts, and attitudes—the ways of thinking and acting—that will enable them to deal effectively with change.

The end result for students attending to the guidelines and incorporating them into their own ways of thinking and acting will be an extension and deepening of their self-governing capacity. Such a capacity and its "cope-ability component" should assist them throughout their school, vocational, and personal careers as they learn to coexist with and perhaps lead the constant, permeating, and exploding flow of change which may at once both challenge their lives and fulfill them.

The following guidelines are provided to help students improve in their capacity to cope with change. Each is presented with an explanation and recommended sample activities. The latter appear in *italics* under the appropriate guideline and are described in detail in alphabetical order in chapter 3. The descriptions of these activities are based on works listed in the selected bibliography, which is arranged according to the numbered guidelines.

⁸ Separation of the eight guidelines offered in chapter 2 is for purposes of discussion and illustration only rather than a derivation from any innate mutual exclusiveness.

Guidelines for Learning To Cope

1. Provide Time for Thinking About and Dealing with Change

Gibran's *Prophet* speaks of the teacher who is indeed wise if he leads students "to the threshold of your own mind," for "no man can reveal to you aught but that which already lies half asleep in the dawning of your knowledge."¹ Teachers concerned with preparing young people to cope with change should give their attention to allowing students the time in class to bring their individual resources to bear on any particular thrusts of change that might be buffeting their special lives. Teacher designated *Quiet Periods* and specially designed *Learning Centers* can begin to help students develop and strengthen for themselves this self-meditation concept.

With thinking time provided, pupils may look inside themselves at what they already have—their competencies and capacities. They may consider any problems they feel pertinent, and these they may even "solve" by using their personal past as a guide to present and future conditions of change.² At the very least—and this is the key, relatively simple reason for building in guideline 1—students should be assisted in developing or strengthening the habit of meeting with themselves as an initial step in considering changes or facing change-induced concerns.

The classroom teacher, of course, cannot guarantee the development and employment of the habit; he can provide the time, the structure, and the setting. He can train pupils to use their own minds more effectively and efficiently in thinking through new things sorting through different ones. Moreover, he or she can serve as a guide and counselor with or for students. In line with these dual roles, he should be available to direct students to certain auxiliary, stimulating, or confirming resources and where they may be obtained; and should himself be able and willing to respond to pupil questions, if asked, in an intellectually honest and humane way. The teacher's overall goal should be to help students so condition themselves that they will make time for thinking both in and outside the school environment. They will, in sum, both desire and know how to pause amid the conflicting pressures and anxieties of everyday life—pressures and anxieties that tend to vie for attention and obscure one's perspective and thereby allow the new or different to become, perhaps, more of a threat than either really need be.

2. Know Oneself and One's Values

To cope with the decisions solicited by continuing change it is essential that each student start with himself and come to an understanding of who

¹ Gibran, Kahlil. *The Prophet*. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1963, p. 56.

² Teachers might contribute the analogy of the "rowboatman" here, i.e., use your past as a point on which to focus as you move forward into new "waters."

and what he is. Identity is a coherent sense of self. It depends on an awareness that one's efforts and one's life make "sense."

Teachers, in the relatively "safe" environment of the school, can foster this search for self by "systematically organizing formal and informal activities that help the student define, explicate and test his values, whatever they are."³ Values,⁴ after all, are the fundamental rules in an individual's conceptual framework by which he evaluates and makes comparisons and on which he bases his decisions, be they in regard to change or other forces bearing on his life.

Value problems, which demand deep reflection on controversial questions to elicit value responses, may be used to help students identify and clarify their values and the relative importance of these values—the *Alligator River* activity, for example. Activities such as the *Coat of Arms* exercise, a technique whereby students can think about themselves—their values—in a very personal way, are quite worthwhile and easily accessible to teachers. In addition, teaching strategies such as *Devil's Advocate*, through which the teacher "opens up" pupils to see themselves and their system for considering alternatives, enabling students to recognize old fears and dogmas, perhaps to reconcile conflicts in present values, and not least of all, to find the "creative child" within them.

It is to be hoped that value training can assist students in the examination of their values and the system into which these values are organized, as well as in the making of sensible and socially responsible decisions on a conscious level. Outcomes of the formal training should include the strengthening and enhancing of each individual's sense of personal worth and identity; and on these is based self-knowledge, the cornerstone for cope-ability.

3. Be Able To Set Realistic Goals for Personal and Vocational Ends and Be Flexible in Reaching Them

A concern of increasing importance for American education must be to help students ask not only where they came from but also where they are going! It is this latter emphasis that lends credence to future perspectives and cope-ability training being incorporated in school curriculums. In addition to major, overall directions for education at the federal, state, and local levels, if teachers are to aid development of the basic mechanism for dealing with change—the person himself⁵—there needs to be some stress on helping students derive and analyze goals for themselves and for their needs, either as individuals or as groups. In addition, students should be helped to see a goal as an end-state that can be reached in a number of ways. (One may want to have a high income, but he need not go to college to achieve it.)

Instruction and training through activities like *Goal Analysis* and the *Road Map of Life* can help students learn to recognize and work with their own goals and can contribute to a mental flexibility in dealing with and reaching

³ Toffler, Alvin. *Future Shock*. New York: Bantam Books, 1971, pp. 417-18. (Original edition published by Random House, 1970.)

⁴ I use Rokeach's definition of a value, i.e., an enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite mode of conduct or end-state of existence.

them. Because pupils and the societies in which they live and work are decidedly group oriented and directed, and because pupils also want a chance to do their own thing, training on both an individual, and a group basis is advisable.

In all, being at ease with the understanding that there is more than one personally and socially acceptable way to reach a goal and, of course, having the skills to set clear goals in the face of change provide a kind of stability and certainly an approach for coping successfully with those new or different forces that swirl about, enter into, and often threaten the lives of students.

4. Learn To See Change Trends and To Anticipate the Next Important Change Event(s)

Whether with regard to their work lives, their personal, family, social, or play experiences, pupils of today will find their cope-ability for change strengthened by a reasonably accurate knowledge of what lies ahead.

For youngsters, the role and importance of the study of the future (futuristics) can be illustrated through the story of the high school co-ed planning for college. Her reading, conversation, and observation in connection with training she receives in the tools for thinking about the future indicate that living at college—and hers is no exception—is increasingly coeducational. Forearmed with an awareness of the trend she's discovered, its application to her future school, and any subsequent consideration, investigation, and planning she might wish to do (perhaps again using some tools of futuristics), she will be on more solid ground when at her senior prom her boyfriend invites her to join him in communal living during their freshman year. Her response is more likely to be well considered if she anticipates not only the trend but also the request, i.e. an important "change event," and the implications it might hold for both their lives.

Tools such as *Future "Histories"* and the *Delphi Technique* can contribute to the development of the kind of thinking that helps students look beyond the immediate and anticipate what they will be faced with tomorrow. They help students anticipate both the direction and the rate of change. They help them, in essence, mold their own future.

5. Utilize a Positive Approach Instead of an Attitude of Defeat or Antagonism to the Flow of Change

Toffler states in *Future Shock* that "among highly adaptive individuals, men and women who are truly alive in, and responsive to, their times, there is a virtual nostalgia for the future. Not an uncritical acceptance of all the potential horrors of tomorrow, not a blind belief in change for its own sake, but an overpowering curiosity, a drive to *know* what will happen next."⁶ Too often this drive is allowed to dull in students. Instead, it must be nurtured; pupils must be helped to approach the new and different as a challenge, an opportunity to test themselves, their abilities, and to learn new

⁵ Andrew, Michael. "Change." Durham: University of New Hampshire, 1970. p. 3.

⁶ Toffler, *op. cit.* p. 426.

ones as they stretch themselves to discover who they are and what they might become.

Such positive thinking can and should be an outgrowth of the teacher's own sense of glory in being alive. In addition, acquisition of certain skills can open up intellectual excitement. Skills such as *Brainstorming*, *Force Field Analysis*, and the *Judo* technique can, for example, foster an attitude that leads to more production (and more fun) when faced with a change situation than does one of initial criticism, despair, frustration, or even hopelessness.

In sum, one might be reminded of a message by Eda Le Shan: "Whatever a person does to reawaken a sense of delight in the world around him helps him to find what it means to be the special person he is."⁷ It is little enough to ask teachers to help in the process!

6. Internalize and Work with a "Crap-Detector" To Analyze on One's Own the Merits of the New or Different and To Determine, Without Necessary Dependence on Others, Subsequent Acceptance or Rejection Thereof

An expressive and important term, "crap-detector"—one that embodies the idea that students need to develop critical and analytical abilities. Moreover, they must be willing and able to put these skills to the challenges of change that confront them. To be sure, they need to apply skills of inquiry and reasoning to external concerns, but they also need to apply such skills to themselves and their goals to avoid self-deception and to reach their own best potential.

Learning through the *Inquiry Training* and *SPUR* activities can assist and facilitate the charge Toffler gives to the schools: "Students must learn how to discard old ideas, how and when to replace them. They must, in short, learn how to learn."⁸

7. Be Able To Work with and Build on, Publicly, What One Accepts from the New or Different

Pupils will inevitably gain a number of ideas from their contacts with the flow of change. Certainly, some of these will be ideas they deem important. The thrust of the seventh guideline is that the ideas, phenomena, content, et al., which students gain from their encounters with change—and which, in their opinion, are important—can and should be further developed in the arena of interpersonal communication.

It is through defining, debating, and testing with peers and teacher that students can both gain perspective on their ideas and modify them in the light of additional evidence and information. In the sharing process, of course, students gain from a probable illumination of the consequences contingent to their ideas but also from the trying (and additional learning) of skills of

⁷ Le Shan, Eda J., *The Conspiracy Against Childhood*. New York: Atheneum Press, 1967. p. 352.

⁸ Postman, Neil, and Weingartner, Charles., *Teaching as a Subversive Activity*. New York: Delacorte Press, 1969. p. 3.

⁹ Toffler, *op. cit.*, p. 414.

face-to-face communication. Both product (what comes from change-initiated ideas) and process (growth in interpersonal communications) are enhanced through the wider involvement that pupils may be taught to seek and use effectively through, for instance, *Interpersonal Communications Training*.

8. Develop the Humaneness, Especially the Capacity for Tolerance, in Each Human Being

Although the last of the guidelines offered, this may well be the most important. If teachers can help students come to know and believe that each of them as well as each person they encounter is unique and special, then *differences* (part of the concept of change), in addition to being viewed as "normal," can be seen as exciting, welcome, and worth sharing instead of threatening.

In *I'm OK, You're OK*, Thomas Harris says, "We are related to one another, and we are persons and not things. The people of the world are not things to be manipulated, but persons to know; not heathen to be proselytized, but persons to be heard."¹⁰ Students who understand and function with one another in accord with such a principle—students educated, for example, through such activities as *Resources* and *Class Meetings*—will be more prone to accept positively, cope effectively with, and enjoy the fast moving current of change whenever and however it affects their lives. They will be able to deal successfully with its many and varied challenges to their societies and the larger, encompassing one into which they are moving.

¹⁰ Harris, Thomas A., *I'm OK, You're OK*. New York: Harper and Row, 1967. p. 260.

Sample Activities

In the following pages are presented some sample activities through which students may attain the skills and attitudes inherent in the preceding guidelines. To be sure, these activities are only a few of the many available from outside sources (see the bibliography) and the teacher's own creativity.

For ease of reading, the activities described here are offered in a format of "Comment," "Data," "Classroom Example." Although all three are not provided for every activity, what is offered for each is sufficient to enable an interested teacher to make an efficient and effective start on cope-ability education for his or her students.

When working with a "change curriculum" that draws, for example, on the activities provided in this bulletin, it is important to keep in mind one's audience and overall situation. To illustrate, certainly not all of these activities would be appropriate for all classroom groups. Where an activity seems especially suitable for a particular maturity level, this is noted under "Comment." Some of the activities, for example, are geared mainly to elementary school children, especially the upper level, and, some, to secondary students; some would work better in open, flexible teaching environments and some would be more appropriate for traditional, structured teachers and their curriculum needs. At least a few (especially as adapted) should appeal to each of the major interest and ability levels of children in most classrooms. In fact, these activities have been selected and written with an eye toward providing a sampling of the *variety* of experiences that many students in many school situations could encounter within grades or from grade to grade as they move toward greater competency in coping with change.

Overall, individual teachers are encouraged to adapt and adopt the activities as they see fit to make them even more worthwhile for their particular students. Ideas on how to organize into a teacher's ongoing curriculum these and other activities which may spring from his creative interest in teaching for change cope-ability are presented in the postscript, which follows this chapter.

As noted previously, the activity descriptions in this chapter are in part based on works listed in the bibliography. It is believed that the annotations therein provide sufficient credit to the sources of activities included so that documentation here may be kept to a minimum.

Alligator River

Comment

Here is a value-eliciting tale that is particularly appropriate for senior high school students learning to operate with guideline 2. Like the activities which follow, of course, Alligator River may be used better in some teaching situations than in others. Moreover, it should be helpful in teaching any number

of the guidelines or other aspects of the teacher's regular curriculum. Use of an overhead projector facilitates group understanding of "who is where" in relation to the story (see the illustration). After narrating the story, it is important for the teacher to ask students to discuss their individual choices in small mixed groups. They should also share the *reasons* for their choices. The teacher may wish to point out intra- and intergroup similarities, discuss expressed or implied values, or in general direct the examination into personal values and the reactions to those of others that result from the exercise. It is this kind of interaction with peers and the teacher that often enables young people to find out more about themselves and thereby to face change with more confidence.

Data

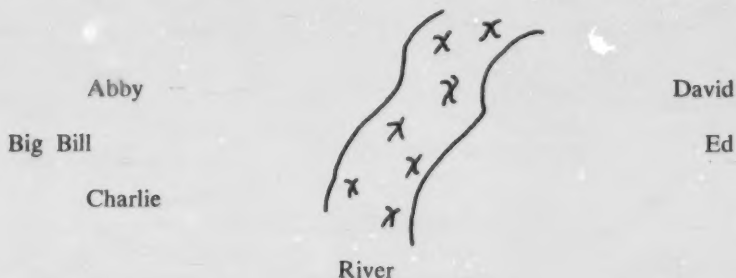
The teacher offers the Alligator River story¹ to his high school class, as follows:

This story is about some people and an "alligator river"—the river was infested with alligators. Abigail lived on one side of the water. She was a sweet young thing. David was her boyfriend. He lived on the other side of the river. On the day before their forthcoming marriage there was a terrific storm and the only bridge across the river was washed out.

Now it so happened that on Abigail's side of the river was a fellow with a boat, named Big Bill. So she goes to Big Bill to ask him if he'll help her get across the river. Bill says, "Well, what's in it for me, honey?" She says, "What do you mean?" And he says, "You don't think I'm going to do it for nothing? I'll tell you what; you spend the night with me on my boat and I'll take you across the river." "Well," Abby says, "I can't do that, I'm saving myself for David. And if David ever finds out, the marriage will be off, I'm sure." Big Bill says, "Well, sorry!"

There was another fellow on Abigail's side of the river who had a boat; his name was Charlie. So Abigail goes to Charlie and explains her story, and Charlie says, "I don't want to get involved."

So what does Abigail do? Without a boat, she doesn't know how to get across the alligator infested river. She goes back to Bill and agrees to spend the night. The next morning he takes her across the river. She arrives bright and early, crying as she steps out of the boat, and David greets her, takes



¹ This version of the story was told to the author at workshop of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. For a similar version, see Simon, Howe, and Kirschenbaum's, *Values Clarification* under guideline 2 in the bibliography.

her in his arms, and asks, "What's wrong?" So she explains the situation, and David takes one look at her, spits, and says, "Get away from me, you slut, the marriage is off!" Of course, she's broken up and sets off down the river, crying hysterically, and she runs into a guy named Edward. Edward asks her to tell him the story, and after hearing it he says, "I'll marry you." And they both set off back up the river to see David because Eddie decides he's going to beat the living—out of David, and he does so while Abby watches with glee and gets in a kick or two herself.

Brainstorming

Comment

Brainstorming is a technique that is valuable for the stimulation and generation of ideas and the facilitation of their expression. It has the additional benefit of training students to hold criticism until ideas have been generated. The purpose of the procedure is to promote a quantity of thought bearing upon a particular subject by identifying all possible aspects related to it. Brainstorming involves cooperative, creative thinking by groups which can be both joyful and helpful in coping, for example, with a change-induced problem.

Data

The teacher presents to the class some basic principles and procedures for brainstorming, as follows:

1. *You will be more productive of ideas if you refrain from evaluating or discussing them at the time they are proposed.* This is important because education and experience have trained most of us to think judicially rather than creatively. By deferring judgment on our ideas, we can think up far more alternatives from which to choose later.

2. *Group production of ideas can be more effective than separate, individual production of ideas.* Experiments in group thinking have demonstrated that the average participant in this kind of creative collaboration can think up twice as many possible solutions as when working alone.

3. *The more ideas we think up the better.* In problem solving of almost any type, we are far more likely to choose the right path toward solution if we think up ten possible alternatives instead of only two or three.

The procedure for brainstorming falls into two phases.

First, *brainstorm* the problem according to these rules:

- a. All critical judgment is ruled out. We seek ideas, not critical analysis.
- b. Wild ideas are expected in the spontaneity which comes when judgment. Practical considerations are not of importance at this point.
- c. Quantity of ideas counts here, not quality.
- d. Build on the ideas of other brainstormers when possible. Pool your wildness.

In the second phase, apply *critical judgment*:

- a. Review the ideas by applying your best judgment.
- b. Seek clues to something sound in the wildest idea.
- c. Select priorities for reporting to the decision-making person or group.

Class Meetings

Comment

In regularly held participatory class meetings, students have the chance to listen to and interact with one another on topics of interest and concern to them. In so doing, they are quite likely to get to know one another, and perhaps themselves, better. Self-knowledge combined with increased knowledge of others, acquired under the guidance of a skilled teacher, has the potential to deepen the students' appreciation of the uniqueness and essential worthwhileness of other human beings. In such a context, encounters with change—new or different ideas, situations, and people—can be exciting and positive, or at least less threatening.

Data

The key to successful class meetings that can foster the development of an individual's humaneness is the teacher. He can choose to use the class as a counseling group to develop the social responsibility necessary to solve personal (e.g., behavioral) and educational problems within the class, so that outside help is rarely needed. Should he select to do so, adherence to the following checkpoints will contribute to his competency in teaching through a class-meeting type strategy, which, by the way, can be fun as well as professional.

- ☐ Type of meeting (problem-solving, open-ended, educational-diagnostic) is preplanned. (These types may overlap.)
- ☐ Students are arranged in a systematic way for maximum productivity in the meeting; e.g., pupils who nudge and squirm by one another can be separated. Boys and girls can be interspersed.
- ☐ Chairs are formed into a tight circle.
- ☐ The leader sits in a different part of the circle at each meeting, but always as a contributing member. (Teachers may team in working with class meetings.)
- ☐ Visitors are welcome in the circle.
- ☐ Topics are introduced by the teacher or by the class members.
- ☐ "Problem solving" is the focus of discussion, i.e., a reasonable alternative(s) can be expected from the session(s).
- ☐ Pupils are allowed and encouraged to respond but are asked to raise their hands to contribute.
- ☐ Solutions being worked toward are based on individuals making a personal commitment for their own future actions.
- ☐ The leader is supportive and gives help at appropriate times (e.g., he may redirect student thinking through probing questions or by contrasting differing viewpoints that have been expressed).
- ☐ The leader's role in discussion is nonjudgmental (i.e., he accepts all opinions and refrains from identifying answers or responses as "right" or "wrong").
- ☐ Judgments made by the class are made in terms of working toward positive solutions.

- ☐ Group members avoid punitive-type responses (e.g., "You said . . . ; report to the principal," or "You used a word incorrectly; go to the dictionary and")
- ☐ Genuine interest is evident on the part of the leader.
- ☐ Meetings do not normally exceed forty-five minutes and are consistent in duration.
- ☐ Follow-up meetings are scheduled on a regular basis and at a regular time.

Coat of Arms

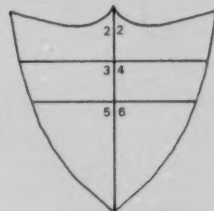
Comment

Easily adaptable for most elementary and intermediate level children especially, this activity can be completed through a variety of questions thought up by the teacher or the students, or both. Moreover, the completed project is enlivened by art work which can be hung in a room or school hallway for the pleasure of all students, faculty, and parents. It is helpful, before the "hanging," to encourage pupils to share and discuss their personal shields, in dyads, with peers or the teacher: why they show what they do and how it reflects currently held values. After sharing, pupils might be asked to complete a series of statements, based on work with the shields, that begin with "I learned that I" Again, results could be shared, especially with the teacher. Such sharing and showing, however, should be optional and at the discretion of the teacher.

Whether sharing is done or not, the Coat of Arms activity may help some students to think more and more deeply on what they are "all about." Such thinking is helpful for a teacher preparing students to cope with change.

Data

Provide students with an outline of a shield similar to the one pictured here. It is to become their *personal* coat of arms. Each pupil is to draw two pictures in the first section, one to represent something he is very good at and one to represent something he is struggling to get better at. (Pictures are recommended, even as crude as stick drawings; quality of art work is not important to the exercise. If a student cannot provide a picture, he may choose to use words.)



In the second section, the student is to represent one value on which he would simply "never budge." It is a deep commitment. In the third section, he is to represent the material possession most significant to him. In the fourth section, he should draw two pictures, one to represent his greatest achievement of the past year and the other to show his biggest setback, failure, or defeat. In the fifth section, the student should show what he would do with his life if he had one year to do whatever he wanted and would be guaranteed success in anything he undertook. Finally, in the sixth section, he is to place three words that he would like people to say about him if his life ended today.

Delphi Technique

Comment

Late intermediate and secondary school youngsters especially should enjoy this "futuristic" technique to get them to develop a way of thinking that will help them look beyond the immediate and anticipate what they may be faced with in the future.

Data

Basically, the Delphi is a questionnaire that is used for activities such as forecasting, long-range planning, and decision making. Each question asks when (what year) the respondent thinks a particular event will take place, if he thinks it will take place at all. For example, a junior high school science question might be:

"When will men land on Mars?"

0	12	20	45	15	8	0	(B)
1975	80	85	90	95	2000	Never	(A)

(A = dates. B = percent of class estimating a particular date.) The Delphi technique rests on the assumption that the consensus among responses from a panel of "experts" can be more accurate on the time range within which a given event (e.g., man's exploration of Mars) will occur in the future than can a response from any single source.

Results, including the mean and median, from the first questionnaire are tabulated and sent back to the experts (selected students, perhaps—but not necessarily—role playing, or the whole class, for example) so that during the second polling or the third their answers will tend to converge. These second and third rounds may include asking students who are at the end points of the continuum their reasons for their answers. This generates a lot of discussion almost immediately. There are, of course, no "right" answers, but one may seem better than another because it sounds more reasonable.

The class may also design a set of alternative futures on the basis of the probable date (e.g., certain predetermined types of humans will be developed; some types will be especially adaptable to long space voyages, with maturation coming at the conclusion thereof for maximum efficiency in colonizing planets).

Overall, the Delphi technique, despite its shortcomings as a forecasting tool, gets students talking about the future in an organized, reasoning fashion, as well as sharing their perceptions thereof. The technique can be used by teachers in connection with a multitude of curricular projects and can serve in the dual role of helping students "get" subject matter while they also build in another guideline (No. 4) for coping with change.

Devil's Advocate

Comment

Too often discussions in value-oriented areas suffer from student inability to examine the implications of what they believe or alternative beliefs to the

ones they hold dear. When the teacher plays the devil's advocate role, he can let unconsidered implications and alternatives come into a discussion with full force. Teachers playing the devil's advocate would be wise to announce to the class their assumption of the role. However, it is not mandatory since the extreme and dogmatic statements that characterize the position would signal to most students what is afoot.

Classroom Example

The ninth-grade teacher launched into a discussion of the American judicial system and criminal justice:

I want to play the devil with you. I'll screw on my horns and get ready to jab you with my verbal pitchfork. Watch out.

You know all of that stuff we've been reading about it being "better for one hundred guilty men to go free than for one innocent man to be found guilty of a crime he did not commit." Well, that's a lot of bunk! I'd be willing to bet, for example, that *you* sure don't want to be around when those hundred free guilty ones are walking around the streets. And with our legal system as slow and imperfect as it is, we know a lot of criminals are never caught, get off on legal loopholes, or get out on bail so they can steal or rape or murder all over again.

Then, too, this devil wants to raise the question of whether it's all that bad for an innocent person in prison anyway. Certainly, if he's not a criminal, his good habits will stand out and he'll get a job as a trustee and probably will get paroled quickly.

So speaks the devil.

A lively class session² followed the devil's discourse. Few students ever take that kind of confrontation lying down, and the alternatives to consider filled the room. It was value clarifying on a high level, for students were forced to examine what they prized and cherished, to affirm it in front of the entire class, and of course, to be willing to be examined in terms of the implications of what they said and whether or not they had indeed made choices from among alternatives which they fully understood. There was no "right" answer with which even the devil wanted each student to agree. But the teacher, not the devil, wanted to make sure that the students moved continually toward deeper and clearer understandings of their own values (and of themselves) and of those expressed by others. This kind of effort, he felt, would help them recognize the importance of thinking through and getting to know their own values. In turn, such self-knowledge could aid them in dealing with change as it entered upon each of their lives.

Force Field Analysis

Comment

This activity would seem to be especially appropriate for secondary school

² Adapted from Rath, Louis E., Harmin, Merrill, and Simon, Sidney B., *Values and Teaching*. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co., 1966. p. 128.

students. The students are taught that there are four ways to diagnose and work with a situation that, by being new or different, causes them concern:

1. Add a force.
2. Eliminate a force.
3. Strengthen a force.
4. Weaken a force.

Any of these selections can offer an exciting, constructive way to cope with change and individual or group problems accompanying change. A corollary learning becomes, "It's fun to use the mind!"

Data

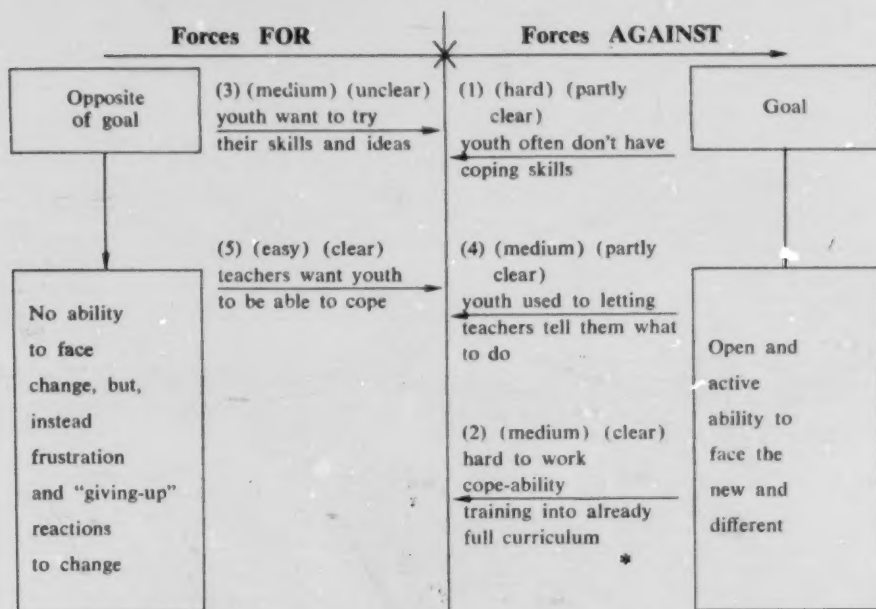
To use the force field technique, one must first state a clear goal, i.e., where will you be when the change anxiety is reduced or the change problem successfully dealt with?

Set up the force field by writing the general nature of the concern across the top of a blank sheet of paper. Then place the goal in the right margin. Next, draw intersecting lines as illustrated in the sample. On the left side, list "forces for" and on the right side "forces against," thus suggesting that the concern in question is being held in a state of equilibrium by opposing stresses or forces. If the forces on the left become stronger, while those on the right stay the same or get weaker, the line will move toward the right, i.e., toward the goal.

Three additional things may now be done. First, rank all of the forces in terms of *how important* they are in yielding the most movement toward the goal. Second, rate each force in terms of *how hard* or *easy* it is to bring about some change in it. Third, rate each force again, this time in terms of *how clear* one is that it is really an operating force. On completion, look over the information assembled and determine, on the basis of the data, where initial time and energy might be spent most profitably. For example, the analysis might suggest that it would be helpful to take an approach of seeking to "weaken" a force pushing toward the goal to reduce tension in the situation. Note that it may be a result of the analysis that the wisest move at this point would be to do another force field analysis on a particular force.

A completed force field analysis will look like this:

CONCERN/PROBLEM—How to help students deal more effectively with change.
(sample)



Key:

(1) = force that will yield most movement toward goal if it could be changed.

* = place for spending initial time and energy. Follow-up might be another force field analysis on this force, or brainstorming, for example.

X = point where problem intersects, impinges on, progress toward goal.

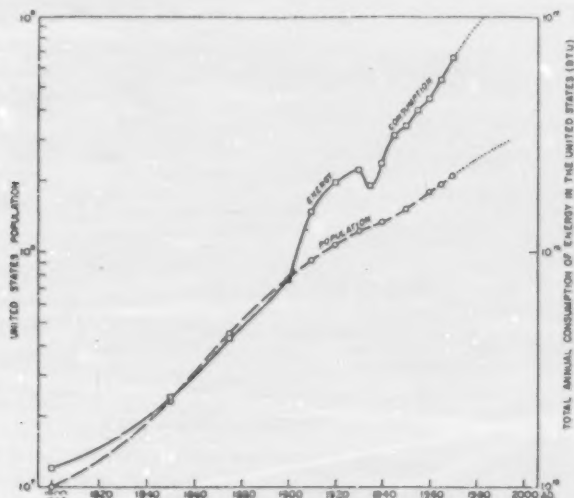
Future "Histories"

This "scenario" device is the training design most often employed by professional futuristics researchers to predict, with some degree of sophistication, alternative futures and ways to deal with them. Experience with the activity should enable students (those of intermediate or secondary school may find it particularly appropriate) to learn to see change trends and to anticipate the next important change events. Armed with what they foresee, they are better prepared to cope with change.

Data

A future "history" or "scenario" is a narrative that combines the future with a history leading up to it. The writer (perhaps a twelfth-grade social studies student) begins by describing the future state of X (say, energy consumption in the United States in 1990). To help himself do this, he may attempt to identify trends in the given area, then project them into the future.

Using extrapolation of the mean of fluctuations of past data—on a graph, for instance, as illustrated reliance on his own knowledge, and pertinent data, he next tries to construct a probable history of the evolution of the current state of energy use to his future state.



Energy Consumption in the U.S.

Source: Cook, Earl. "Energy Sources for the Future," *The Futurist*, 6:144; August 1972. Published by the World Future Society, P.O. Box 30369, Bethesda Branch, Washington, D.C. 20014.

If the history the student writes sounds rational and probable, the future state he has constructed is also probable. The senior, or his class, for example, might be asked to construct a whole series of scenarios in which he or they try to exhaust all of the likely futures for X, taking into account all the factors in the present he or they possibly can. At any rate, whether the future "history" be an individual or a group effort, the assignment can provide a good stimulus for students to unshackle their imaginations and project their own visions of the future on paper. At this point, teachers can help the students and probable futures and, it is hoped, get them to think about what must be done to make the desirable future emerge. Moreover, the exercise itself—the concentration on developing and organizing a sequence of events, each shaped by the one preceding it—can help give students a feeling of control over their own personal futures as well as aid them in considering alternative possibilities in their present lives.

Goal Analysis

Comment

The function of goal analysis is to help students say what they mean by

their important³ but often abstract goals. The controlling idea behind goal analysis is that if a student knows, can identify, the main performances that collectively go to make up the meaning of one of his goals, then he can more wisely and effectively select the most appropriate procedures to measure his progress toward the goal and to achieve the desired intent, state, or condition itself. Or, or course, in the light of the analysis he may reject the original goal for a better one.

Either way, through learning the process of goal analysis and concurrent practice in setting goals, students may better equip themselves to face, deal with, and even lead the forces of change with which they are constantly confronted.

Data

In step one of the goal analysis procedure, each learner is asked to write down a goal he considers important to achieve, using whatever words are comfortable. Following this, he is asked to write down the things he would want someone to say or do, in the way he describes, to cause him—the goal-setter—to agree that the goal is being represented (step two). These would be directly visible or audible or directly assessable. Covert, internal, activity can be considered directly assessable if there is a single behavior that will indicate the presence of the performance.

Once the things are jotted down that might cause the learner to agree his goal has been achieved, he needs to go back over the list and cross out duplications and items that on second thought aren't really wanted. Moreover, abstractions that remain can be analyzed further to determine performances that constitute them (step three). A helpful procedure is to put each abstraction on a separate piece of paper and consider it until it is refined to either "someone representing the goal does this" or "someone representing the goal doesn't do this," i.e., a performance or nonperformance criterion is met.

In step four of the goal analysis procedure the learner should write coherent statements to describe what is intended for each of the performances on the list. These statements will describe the nature, quality, or amount(s)—the outcomes—that must be achieved before the goal-setter can say the goal is achieved. This step facilitates the testing of the performances to see if they truly reflect what was meant by the goal. In addition, it assists the goal-setter in deciding what to do to achieve the goal better.

The collective testing of the sentences for their adequacy and completeness is the fifth and final step of the goal analysis procedure. As Mager puts it, with regard to this last step, "Test the statements with the question, If someone achieved or demonstrated each of these performances, would I be willing to say he has achieved the goal? When you can answer yes, the analysis is finished."⁴

In sum, goal analysis is a procedure useful in helping students to describe the meaning of the goals they hope to achieve.

³ By "important" it is meant that an individual feels some urgency to achieve certain desired outcomes which may be vague or not as well achieved at present as he would wish.

⁴ Mager, Robert F., *Goal Analysis*. Belmont, Calif.: Fearon Publishers, 1972. p. 72.

Classroom Example

The elementary school children in room 109 realized they had a problem. They were getting a new teacher. Mrs. Jackson was leaving soon for a minor operation. It was important to the children that they continue working on the learning centers that were around the room, and several of the bolder children told Miss Friend, the substitute, that very thing on the day she arrived.

Miss Friend decided to use the techniques of goal analysis with the children. It would be a learning experience for them and also would help her in knowing where and how to work with them. She said she accepted the evident concern about what changes she, a new and different teacher, might make and she wanted them to help her and themselves think through and set up what might be the best goal for the class to work toward in the time she would be with them. She agreed that "working on the learning centers" sounded OK, but she wondered aloud with them if they knew for sure what they meant by that. She suggested that they do an analysis of their goal so that both she and they would know more accurately what the class wanted. At this point, she said, she had no objection to the goal of "finishing the learning centers," but she hoped they could clarify what they meant so she could be sure how she could best use her time and energy to help them during her stay.

Miss Friend then asked each student to write down in his own way the goal^{4a} he considered important for the class to achieve during the next few weeks. From what the students offered on their papers, she put on the board, "Our class goal is to successfully understand the learning centers in the room." Next she asked them to write down the things they would want someone (including themselves, for example) to say or do that would cause them to agree that the goal was being represented. She listed on the board, as they came from the class, the items that were generated:

1. Kids will say "I learned something."
2. The regular teacher will be happy we did the centers.
3. All of the kids will want to do learning centers again.
4. We'll not have very many questions as we work.
5. Each student will show that he was at each center and did it.
6. Our present and future work will show proof that we learned what we were supposed to learn at the centers.

Now, Miss Friend advised them—and this came the next day—"Let's go back over the lists and do some sorting and editing. We want to turn every item into a performance or nonperformance; that is, one who has reached the goal either "does it" or "doesn't do it." She worked on the board list while the students worked on their own lists at their seats. The revised list appeared as follows:

^{4a} "Goal," as used here, is defined as a broad or abstract intent, state, or condition.

<i>Original</i>	<i>Comment</i> (based on teacher-student work)	<i>Revision</i>
1. (See above)	Too vague	Students who complete a center will pass the test at that center.
2. "	Part of No. 6	(Deleted)
3. "	Considered vague and unnecessary in relation to this particular goal.	(Dropped)
4. "	OK	Students will not have any large number of questions as they work.
5. "	Too vague	Students will check in beside their name at each station and will turn in the required work.
6. "	Too abstract	Projects done for the science unit coming up will not show any of the problems dealt with in the centers, e.g., no misuse of "to, too, two."

In the following session of the class, students were asked to write statements describing what was intended for each performance still on the list. With the teacher's guidance, they came up with a composite, which the teacher put on the board:

Our Goal

Pupils in this class who understand the learning centers in the room and who are successful in dealing with them:

- will pass the test at each center completed.
- will not need to ask a lot of questions.
- will check in beside their name at each station.
- will turn in the work required at each station.
- will not show, on the upcoming science fair projects, any of the problems covered in the centers.

Finally, Miss Friend suggested that the students ask this question of their composite: "If someone demonstrated he could do each of the performances on the list, would you be willing to say he has achieved the goal?" The class agreed they would.

The consensus of the class at this point—and the teacher agreed—was that, with the clear goal now in front of them, they would continue to work at the learning centers under Miss Friend's guidance.

As a follow-up, at a class meeting Miss Friend brought up the experience of the past few days and discussed with the children how they had worked to clarify what was, at first, a fuzzy but nonetheless worthwhile goal. They talked, also, about how other goals could be derived for education and for life and how these too might be made clearer by the process of goal analysis. They chatted about different ways of achieving goals: "There's more than one way to skin a cat," Teddy offered. Miss Friend suggested a final thought: what they had done in their recent efforts together, she pointed out, was to learn to use a technique to cope with something new or different for them—in this case, the arrival of a new teacher and all that that implied. This technique she identified formally for them as being called goal analysis. They might want to use it, she suggested, at many times and places as one device to help themselves clarify the goals they set as they work, for instance, at coping with the change that continually confronts them.

Inquiry Training

Comment

A plethora of ways exist to train students to inquire. (A sample training exercise follows.) The end result of all of them should be to help the students become educated to the point where they have the skill and the motivation to question both established and new ideas and thereby increase their own and society's survival prospects. Such questioning by students at any level (and inquiry training can take place at most any grade level given certain obvious prerequisites such as the ability to work with others), indicates a practical start on the attainment of guideline 6., i.e., achieving a built-in "crap-detector" to effectively deal with new or different situations.

Data

One training exercise might be labeled, "Learning To Ask Different Kinds of Questions." In it:

1. Students are divided into trios.
2. The *questioner* selects a topic and frames four questions, each of a different type as described below. (To save time, the teacher may ask each student to do this task prior to setting up the helping trios.)
3. The *respondent* answers each question honestly and to the best of his ability.
4. The *observer*, after each answer is offered, identifies the kind of question being asked and checks his identification with the intentions of the questioner.
5. After each complete round of four questions, the roles within the trio are rotated. Each student gets a chance to be in each role.

The four kinds of questions identified for this exercise are detailed as follows:

1. The *cognitive recall* question asks simply for a discrete fact from a bank of knowledge and information.

Example: What activities did Tom Sawyer and his friends carry out while playing pirate on the Mississippi River island?

2. The *convergent* question utilizes information to prove a point or to support a generalization.

Example: Prove that Tom Sawyer and his friends both enjoyed and suffered through their time as pirates on the Mississippi River island.

3. The *divergent* question utilizes some known fact as a starting point, but the answer moves away in an unpredictable direction.

Example: How did you feel when you were homesick as compared with how Tom and his friends felt?

4. The *evaluative question* seeks to use information to reach some kind of value judgment.

Example: Were Tom Sawyer and his friends wrong to stay on the Mississippi River island once they knew the village thought them drowned?

Note: The teacher may need to establish some set for a lesson incorporating the above, to include making sure students are at least acquainted with the four kinds of questions. Follow-up work to ensure competency is also advisable.)

Interpersonal Communications Training

Comment

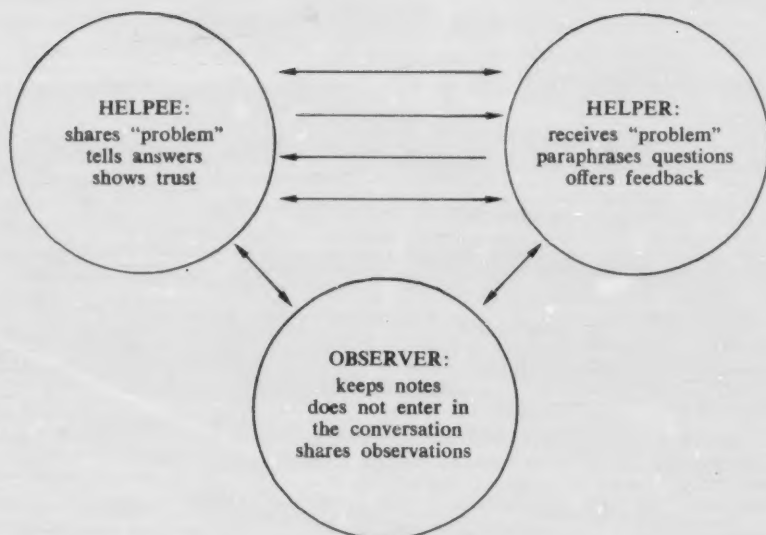
When affected by change, students will usually be involved with others with whom they will want to communicate. One part of communicating is being able to transfer meaning on a one-to-one basis. Such interpersonal communication is facilitated by acquisition of and adherence to specific skills of interaction. One set of these skills are the clarity producing techniques like paraphrasing, perception checking, and describing feelings. These and others can be identified, learned, practiced, and improved by pupils and thereby can serve them as tools for aiding in understanding what others are saying and meaning. The clearer the communication between two parties, the better is the opportunity for a transfer of ideas, including testing, assessment, and further development (or revision) of one's own. Success, or at least reasonable competence, in this public arena of interaction can better enable students to cope with the new or different.

Classroom Example:

The sixth-grade teacher wanted his students to have a chance to talk through some ideas they had been advancing recently with regard to marijuana. He knew that some of the students had used marijuana, but for them as well as their classmates, smoking "pot" was a relatively new experience. What ideas they had expressed seemed to favor legalizing its use.

To facilitate the kind of thinking interaction he wanted, the teacher chose to set up holding trios (see diagram) in the classroom; through these, students would practice one-to-one communication abilities.

THE HELPING TRIO



After clarifying what he was about and why, he provided a series of initial training sessions for the students on several basic interpersonal communication skills geared to producing clear communication. To teach paraphrasing, for example, he asked students to read a simple handout defining a paraphrase and illustrating ways of employing it.⁵ After discussing the skill, he made use in class of the "Echolia" exercise which required the helper to paraphrase, to the satisfaction of the helpee, each major comment of the helpee before offering any questions, comments, or input. The observer was given the job of tallying the number of the helper's paraphrases and the key words of each. After from three to five minutes of interaction between helper and helpee, in which the helper supposedly was deliberately trying to use paraphrases and attain a clear understanding of the views of the helpee and to offer his own thoughts, as appropriate, the teacher called time and asked the observer to give his report in the trio. The trio discussed the report to help sharpen all their thinking on the skill of paraphrasing. Following this, the teacher offered to the entire class some feedback based on his overall observations that helped the class distinguish more clearly what a paraphrase is and whether the class members were employing it accurately; if not, why not, and how they might improve. There were two more rounds, each consisting of helper-helpee interaction and observer feedback and each ten minutes in length. Trio members switched roles so that each got to be a helper in one of the three rounds. The topic for discussion in each round was, "Should marijuana be legalized?"

⁵ See the bibliography, guideline 7, for source of handouts (and training exercises) for this and other skills.

At the completion of the training, the teacher reviewed with the class the value in using paraphrasing and suggested some additional skills they would be practicing. It was his intention that students would gain competency in these skills and, in the process, check out their thinking and perhaps add to it or revise it in light of the questions and comments by others.

His follow-up, at least a part of it, was planned to be a debate on the legalization issue. Students would be held accountable for using the skills they had practiced earlier. The teacher hoped, again, that the debate—the interaction—besides showing evidence of competency in interpersonal communication skills, would also bring out for honest, objective, examination by individual students (either openly or on their own) at least some of the pros and cons of smoking “pot”.

Judo

Comment

Used as a metaphor for effecting change, judo refers to the use of a system against itself to work for needed revision. Its application—especially in the higher elementary and secondary school classrooms where it might most productively be taught—can provide a positive approach to situations wherein the new and different are threatening and potentially or in fact discouraging.

Data

The following are some basic principles of the judo activity:

1. Learn and understand the structure of the system being dealt with.
2. Understand the symbology of that system.
3. Understand the psychology of those who comprise the system.
4. Be able to suggest at least one alternative procedure in place of a “you are wrong” approach.
5. Support the alternatives(s) presented.
6. Use language the system representative likes to hear.
7. Deal from a position of positiveness—no dirty words, no desecration of symbols important to the system, no know-it-all attitude.
8. Avoid, at least initially, putting extra pressure on the system representative or going over his or her head.
9. Employ the point of view that any suggestions made are to help the learners learn.

Classroom Example

The high school ninth-graders were down because they all had to learn a new grammar in English. On recognizing this feeling, their homeroom teacher suggested that they learn and apply some principles for coping in a positive way with the change situation they faced. Through a series of discussions he told them about judo and helped them understand that the new grammar was required by the department curriculum guide; that the unfamiliar terminology incorporated and used much of the old, even if adding a few more linguistic facts; and that the English teacher was anxious not

only to do what the curriculum guide called for but also to find out more, himself, about the new (structural) grammar he was to teach.

Armed with such information, the students began to think that the new might be interesting, perhaps even exciting and fun. They decided to implement further the judo principles. Before work was to begin on the new grammar in English class, the students suggested to the teacher that they be divided into at least three groups: one to work with the grammar they had learned previously, one to investigate structural grammar, and one to look into "other" grammars, if any. A transfer student used the word *generative* to illustrate what might be considered within "other" and brought to class the book that had introduced him to the term. The students pointed out that the grouping and subsequent research and sharing would be a kind of experiment. It would not increase the work load of the teacher, who could give essentially the same kind of assignments. But results would include students learning the required new grammar as well as both students and teacher gaining an opportunity to increase their sensitivity to the complexities of the structural system of American English. All would be done in a helping context between students and teacher; some of the more grammar-oriented students, for example, would volunteer to bring their energy to the nontraditional groups, thus allowing the less secure students to stay with the old grammar.

It was agreed to try the plan. At this juncture, the students were excited by their "successful" application of judo and had motivated themselves to discover more about the grammatical system of their language. No longer was the new being approached with negative feelings.

Learning Centers

Comment

On both the elementary and secondary levels, specially designed (and relatively simple) learning centers can be provided so that pupils, in a private manner, will be encouraged to assess and make use of their own resources to focus on the interrelationship of their lives and change. To deal effectively with change, one must have time to think and consider. Learning centers can serve the purpose.

Classroom Example

The teacher developed, as one of her learning centers in the classroom, an internal dialogue center called "Talk With Yourself." Students were encouraged to visit it. When they did, directions informed them that the center's activities were based on providing them some time for introspection as well as helping them gain a clearer perception of dilemmas and paradoxes within their own attitudes which lead to ambiguous or inconsistent behavior.

One of the activities⁶ at the center that students could choose to do offered the following information and assignment:

⁶ The Learning Center idea described is adapted from "Internal Dialogue," Washington, D.C.: NTL Learning Resources Corporation, 1972.

We belong to groups of people, but in one sense, each of us *is* a group, within himself, a private world of many interesting parts. We each have a complex internal society. We need practice in listening to and making use of our internal voices just as we need practice in listening to and participating more effectively with the other persons in our external society. In this activity you are asked to tune in on one of your internal dialogues. Select a topic of great interest to you—a dilemma, a self-examination—from the suggestions below or of your own choice. Write a brief dialogue of the conversation between the internal voices.

You might want to describe a discussion:

- Between your optimistic self and your pessimistic self on how effective you are as a friend.
- Between your desire to . . . and your reluctance to do so.

Before you start, see whether you can “hear” the two sides of the conversation. If you can, write it down as the dialogue of a play or the script of a conversation. Be sure the conversation is focused on some issue or confrontation between the two selves that are involved.

About thirty minutes or three pages is a rough guideline.

When you finish, drop the dialogue into the IN box, anonymously if you wish. Papers on which you place an asterisk* will be considered for being read to the class at a later date. All papers will be returned by the teacher to the OUT box. Be sure to check for yours and note any teacher comments thereon.

Note: Such comments by the teacher should not be purely evaluative in nature; e.g., “F—You misspelled too many words.” They should be open and helpful; e.g., “I enjoyed what you had to say. It shows me a side of you I did not know and I appreciate your thinking through your dilemma, your thoughts, and your willingness to share your thoughts with the class. You should be aware that your spelling skills are weak. Please visit or revisit the required centers dealing with spelling.”)

Quiet Periods

Comment

Time set aside for students to assess and work with their own resources should be provided by teachers as a normal part of the ongoing school curriculum. It is one important, initial step in helping students cope with change and change-induced concerns on a self-disciplined basis.

Data

The following are some principles for quiet periods:

1. Time for thinking should be planned cooperatively with students.
2. A guide figure for the length of a quiet period is thirty minutes.
3. Quiet periods should be scheduled and held to as much as possible on a consistent, regular basis, e.g., every second Thursday at the beginning of each class taught by Mr. Jones (secondary), or at 10:30 a.m. (elementary self-contained).

4. In situations where students are likely to encounter several quiet periods in a row as a result of their moving, teachers should coordinate this aspect of the curriculum to prevent "too much of a good thing" causing personnel problems.
5. The purpose of the quiet period should be made clear or reviewed prior to each utilization thereof. (This need not be done by the teacher.) The following questions might be asked:
 What are we about to do? (Use our minds; go "inside" ourselves.)
 Why are we doing it? (To get ourselves together with regard to some new things that are bothering or concerning us.)
 What should come out of this? (A plan for proceeding, a sense of direction, some questions; a combination of these.)
6. Structure may be added to quiet periods. A thinking area may be designated in the room. The teacher may offer a particular new or different item that can serve as a focus for thought; for example, "How will we react when this school becomes integrated next semester?"
7. Complimentary materials are helpful to the situation. To illustrate, students might be requested, or required, to bring with them on quiet period days a preselected "free-reading" book. This book of the student's choice might be used as a personal resource for a certain concern. It might also be used for enjoyment reading if, in that particular session, a student (or students) does not desire to consult with himself on the topic of change.⁷ Teachers, of course, retain the professional responsibility of guiding students in their choice of reading matter.
8. A follow-up should be provided. These questions might be discussed:
 How did things go today?
 What was accomplished, if you care to share it with us
 What, if anything, can we note in common about the use of or outcomes from the personal time you all had today?
 What concerns you regarding being by yourself in a crowd and attempting to discover and draw on your own resources?
 What progress are you making in using the quiet times for their prime purpose?
 How can we measure your growth in this?⁸
 Are you enjoying the quiet times?
 What else can I do—as the teacher—to help you get the most from these quiet periods?

<i>Name of Student</i>	<i>Date</i>	<i>Session Length</i>	<i>Percent of time spent on change matters</i>	<i>Percent of time on "other" Comment</i>
Smith, Bill	9/30	30 min.	10%	90%
	10/15	30 min.	30%	70%
				Understood purpose this time.

⁷ A by-product of the free-reading book is the development in students of a habit of carrying a book to read in waiting rooms or on trips or when class finishes early.

⁸ A simple time allotment log kept by the student might help, e.g.:

Resources

Comment

Humanistic education means helping pupils learn to love themselves and others. To some, this is "self-actualizing." Regardless of the name, teachers should incorporate in their curriculum many opportunities for pupils to more fully answer for themselves, "What Can Man Become?" Certainly, part of the answer is: sensitive to and tolerant and appreciative of personal uniqueness and group diversity. Learnings of this nature will help students face change and deal with it effectively.

The resources activity can be used especially well in the elementary or early secondary classrooms to contribute to an understanding of diversity.

Classroom Example

The elementary teacher, recognizing the need for some specific humanizing education for his students and knowing that they have concerns (a little more obvious lately than normally), works as follows as a planned part of his larger instructional sequence or unit:

You say you've got a problem? Something new or different—some change—has come into your life for which you haven't got a ready response, or one you really like? Tell you what I'm going to do.

To enable you to find out more about how you can help yourself, how you can help others who perhaps are in the same boat or a similar one, and how others can help you, I'm going to ask you to participate for a little while in what I call resources exercises. We'll use these to get you thinking more about what you have within yourself and what others may have within themselves for aiding yourself (or themselves) or others to cope with whatever it might be that requires cope-ability.

Warm-Up

Move into circles of six, with five chairs. Select a group leader.

Note there is one less seat than people in your group. Someone will be without a seat.

Present yourself to your group orally or in writing, giving the arguments why you should have a place or, if you choose, why you feel someone else in your group should be assured of a place.

Ask the leader to list at least one reason why your argument is logical, consistent, or "good." He may do this in writing or orally, either right after your presentation or at the conclusion of the exercise.

Rotate the job of the group leader; after every third "speaker," for example.

Exercise

Form two or more class circles. In each, someone be the guru, the wise man. Have this person take an object or slip of paper from the grab bag. Invite the guru to tell all he or she knows or believes about the object (e.g., a pencil) or the idea on the slip of paper (e.g., courage).

(Optional: Allow others in the circle to ask questions of the guru, one question per person. Ask the guru to respond to these questions.)

Let someone else pick up the role of guru and try to speak to the same topic *just as he or she feels the original guru would do if he were to continue speaking.*

Have a second person speak as he or she feels the original guru would speak, or—

Send the grab bag around again and start over with a new guru and a new topic initiated by the grab bag.

At the end of a round, or at least at the end of the exercise, discuss what happened and why. For example:

- Did the substitute gurus gain any understanding or feeling for the original viewpoint expressed?
- Did they gain any insight into their own position, perhaps by actually speaking against it while doing the role-playing?
- Did they learn anything new to them that might help them in some way?
- Was there evidence of accurate listening?
- Were the substitute gurus able to follow the original line of thought?

Now, everybody write one thing he or she learned. Drop it in a box. One by one, come by, pick up a slip from the box, read it aloud, and guess who said it.

(*Note:* Items/topics in the grab bag may be selected by the teacher to be representative (symbolic) of some of the concerns known to be held by the members of the class.)

Follow-Up

Choose three people in this class to evaluate you. Who are they? What "grade" do they give you? Do you agree with them? Can you identify at least one point each makes that might be accurate? Whose evaluation is most important to you?

(You can answer this to yourself if you wish.)

Road Map of Life

Comment

This activity is quite usable for both elementary and secondary students. Moreover, it can be done individually or in groups. It can take place in structured situations where participants work at their desks under teacher direction and observation or in more open environments where students sit, perhaps on throw rugs, and draw and write on their maps as one of various activities in which they could be engaged.

Data

Directions to be given to students are as follows:

Take a long piece of butcher paper.

Draw your life like a road map.

Show the good places.

Draw in the bumpy spots.

Where are you now?

Fill in where you want to go, your goals.

Draw in the barriers.

How are you going to get there?

The last question could form the basis for class, small group, or teacher-student discussion, in effect giving students opportunity to investigate for themselves and obtain helpful input and analysis from others as they consider their goals and ways of achieving them. Pupil ingenuity might include "answers" on the road map itself, perhaps as a kind of "key" or "additional information" such as found on real maps. Wherever the discussion leads, it is from this kind of experience that change-coping individuals are made.

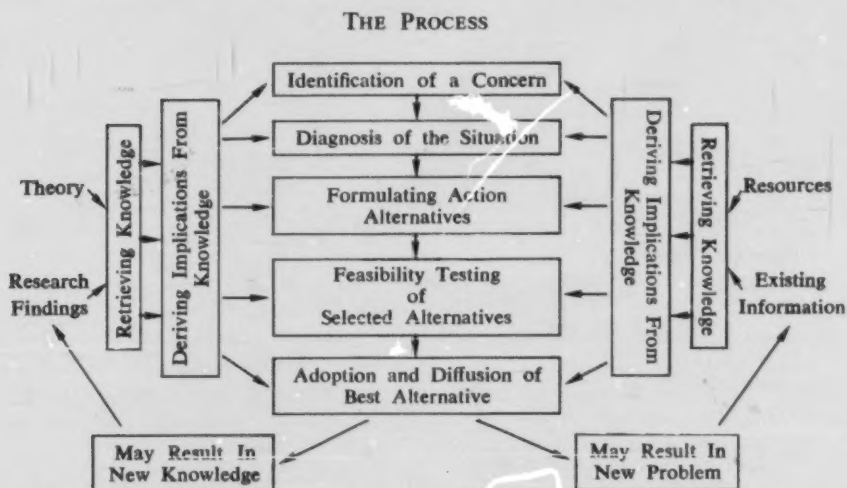
Spur

Comment

SPUR⁹ is a process model that, if understood and applied, can contribute markedly to a student's ability to reason soundly and logically and thus deal more effectively with change. The emphasis on bringing research to bear on problems as well as the working through of a series of steps when facing a decision situation act both as a guard against ill-conceived solutions and unexamined following of possible alternatives. SPUR is best initiated by an individual in relation to a concern he has. It can be taught by teachers, but to be effective, it must be used by a student or students because they see its merits and want to use it to assist, perhaps even structure, their thinking.

Data

The following model should be viewed and taught as a circular rather than a linear, lock-step approach to problem solving. With SPUR there are



⁹ Based on the RUPS model. See Jung, Pino, and Corrigan's *Research Utilizing Problem Solving* under guideline 6 in the bibliography.

many points of entry or departure. Moreover, the bow of the process can go from one step to another as appropriate, i.e., from left to right, right to left, top to bottom, and bottom to top, thus suggesting that problem solving is ongoing. One problem generates others and, it is hoped recycles one into further use of the SPUR model.

Classroom Example

The upper-elementary grade teacher wanted to help her students become more effective in approaching problems with a critical, analytical eye and in solving them efficiently.

As an introduction to what would be a problem-solving emphasis in her instruction, she offered her pupils opportunity to discuss their current problems. With her help, the class decided on a specific problem that was of general, immediate concern, one that they were willing to work on as a group and one that the class might have the power to solve.

Once the general problem was agreed upon and the teacher reviewed with pupils that they were going to add to their problem-solving abilities and why, in the course of solving the selected problem the teacher suggested that they more carefully identify the concern. This was done through applying such questions as the following:

Who is really causing the problem?

Who is affected by the problem?

What skills must likely be used in order for the problem to be solved?

What is the nature of the problem in terms of oneself (e.g., a differing perception), one's friends and others concerned (e.g., value conflicts), and the organization (e.g., the classrooms and potential lack of time therein to work on the problem)?

What else needs to be known to clearly define the problem?

How will things be different; what condition will exist if the problem is solved, that is, what is the goal? Is it measurable? By what criteria?

How will we know when we have arrived at the goal?

Is it worth the time and effort?

Along with discussing these questions, the teacher helped students recognize that they were, in fact, also diagnosing the situation. (She gave them each a copy of the model.) The diagnosis they continued to do by bringing resources to bear: they invited in the principal and researched the school handbook for relevant information.

In subsequent sessions, the class developed some possible solutions, some action alternatives, by using the brainstorming skill. Phase two of brainstorming calls for critical judgment of the ideas generated. Some of the students were asked to check in the library to get some data related to the action alternatives with the highest priorities. While they researched, others asked school personnel and students if the prime action alternatives would work, if they seemed feasible. Results of the library work and the opinion seeking showed that one alternative did not have a good chance of success if implemented. The other seemed likely to be acceptable. The class put it into action on their problem and kept a log of what happened. Problems arising from the application of this action alternative—the diffusion of it—were to be

assigned to volunteers to look into using the SPUR process they had learned. Presumably, the process would go more rapidly as the students became increasingly familiar with it.

The class reviewed what they had learned and why. They talked about situations in which they would be willing to use SPUR. Some told how they had used a version of SPUR without formally naming it when they dealt with concerns arising from facing their parents with their report cards. One student mentioned how it really was similar to the scientific method he had been working with earlier in the year. At this point, the teacher provided an open and continuous challenge to them to apply SPUR-type thinking to problems that would confront them as they encountered new and different concerns in their lives. She promised to foster such thinking in upcoming work during the year.

Directions for Action

Teachers worth their professional salt are well aware that it is not so much what you say to students that counts but what you have them do! The preceding guidelines and activities are of little value in helping students deal effectively with change unless students are allowed to work with them in an organized teaching-learning situation.

Cope-ability training can be presented for students as an elective option within departmental course offerings. It might be offered as a unit of study within a particular course. A focus on coping with change could be part of an ongoing unit or instruction sequence. Learning centers could be constructed around the guidelines and activities and made available for students. In addition, cope-ability education could be presented as a "special" for a lesson, a day, or a selected period of time as a kind of break from the regular routine. It could and should be taught at various times in a given year and in successive years of students' schooling, starting when the students are ready as judged by the teachers or the school. Cope-ability education should be a schoolwide emphasis, not just a point of interest within the province of an individual teacher's curriculum. Probably, most of the activities described in this bulletin could be used from the third grade forward. Of course, any of the individual skills or guidelines could be taught by itself, whether related directly to cope-ability education or not.

Students might well be involved with the planning for their own growth in coping abilities. They could help generate activities and alternate ways of conducting teacher selected activities. Learning to cope can be a cooperative enterprise! What is recommended by the author is "package instruction," that is, a number of the guidelines taught, or even developed inductively with students, during a unified period of time. Work with two or more activities for each guideline would assist students in "building in" the guidelines for their conscious and witting use of them when dealing with change situations. A concentration of the kind recommended should be followed by retention checks and reteaching as needed to ensure continuing competency. In subsequent periods, review may be conducted or "new" guidelines may be added until all eight, at least, are evidenced by student actions when coping with the new or different. Cope-ability education viewed thusly as an ongoing part of the school's curriculum in perhaps a concentration-diagnostic check-up-retraining and/or additional training cycle within a given year and from year to year gives educating for change its proper importance in the educational program.

The key to teaching for cope-ability is really the teacher's interest. It is safe to assume that the great majority of students are not sufficiently equipped to deal with the mass influx of change in their lives. The need is there, and not just in the elementary years. The teacher who believes that educating students to cope effectively with change is important can find ways to incor-

porate cope-ability training in his or her curriculum. In addition, teachers might want to teach at least some of their students how to lead change as well as how to cope with it. (This is another important area, but one outside the direct province of this bulletin.)

Overall, studying about how to deal with change may rightly be regarded as a kind of survival training in our schools. Yet, as Farrell points out in *Deciding the Future*, it takes fifty years for the schools to accept and implement a new idea.¹ In the final analysis, this bulletin is written for teachers and students who believe that being able to cope with the roaring current of change that invades and invests their lives can't wait that long!

¹ Farrell, Edmund F. *Deciding the Future*. Urbana, Ill.: National Council of Teachers of English, 1971. p. 19.

Selected References

The following references offer, along with some general thinking relative to educating for coping with change, additional exercises that can be adapted by persons interested in helping students gain the skills and attitudes inherent in the eight guidelines discussed in Chapter 2. They serve to point out to those interested, the originating source of the activities listed in chapter 3 where that source is not primarily the author.

Guideline 1

Fuller, R. Buckminster, et al. *I Seem To Be a Verb*. New York: Bantam Books, 1970. An interesting, challenging, and far-reaching paperback that borrows from literary, journalistic, and personal sources. Moving through it can make one reflect on change.

Levine, Paul H. "Transcendental Meditation and the Science of Creative Intelligence." *Phi Delta Kappan* 54:231-235; December 1972. Defines and discusses an interesting discipline which turns one's attention inward towards the subtler levels of thought while at the same time expanding the conscious mind and eventually bringing it into contact with the creative intelligence that, it is contended, gives rise to every thought. A companion article relates how TM was installed as a secondary school subject and with what results; see Driscoll, Francis, "TM as a Secondary School Subject," pp. 236-37.

Peale, Norman Vincent. *The Power of Positive Thinking*. Greenwich, Conn.: Fawcett Publishing Co., 1956. A former best-seller which advocates that a peaceful mind generates power and, in addition, teaches the cultivation of peace of mind. Some good, practical suggestions on how to achieve a "quiet time" for thought are presented.

Guideline 2

Linehan, Thomas E., and Irving, William S. *The Value Game*. New York: Herder and Herder Producers, Seabury Press, 1970. Illustrative of the simulation games available, this game is designed to demonstrate the inadequacy of a moral-ethical system which affirms an absolute right and an absolute wrong. It is particularly suitable for high school age students.

Raths, Louis; Harmin, Merrill; and Simon, Sidney B. *Values and Teaching*. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co., 1966. Perhaps the basic text on the values clarification approach, this book deals with concrete action examples of how a teacher cultivates and builds pupil skill in the process of valuing. It deals with the "clarifying response," the "value sheet," and other classroom methods, including the "Devil's Advocate."

Simon, Sidney, et. al. "Materials from Values Associates." Upper Jay, N. Y.: Adirondack Mountain Humanistic Education Center, 1971. The Center publishes a series of small booklets, each dealing with an aspect of the school curriculum and the place of value training therein. Some titles are

Teaching English with a Focus on Values, The Search for Values with a Focus on Math, and Teaching Afro-American History with a Focus on Values.

Simon, Sidney; Howe, Leland; and Kirschenbaum, Howard. *Values Clarification: A Handbook of Practical Strategies*. New York: Hart Publishing Co., 1972. Describes seventy-nine methods for values clarification, including the "Coat of Arms," "Alligator River," and "Brainstorming," and "Force Field Analysis."

Guideline 3

Borton, Terry. *Reach, Touch, and Teach*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1971. Helps teachers, in practical ways and through many examples, to aid a student to learn increasingly sophisticated processes for coping with his concerns about his inner self and the outer world. His "What, So What, Now What" model for process education serves as a means to increase student self-knowledge—about their goals, for instance—as well as academic competence.

Mager, Robert. *Goal Analysis*. Belmont, Calif.: Fearon Publishers, 1972. Offers in step-by-step fashion the principles and practices that can be used to help students understand their own intents better so that they will be able to make better decisions toward their achievement and be able to recognize their progress and success. (See the "Goal Analysis" activity on p. — of this bulletin for in-class use of Mager's teachings.)

Guideline 4

"Futuristics: Crystal Ball for Curriculum." *Nation's Schools* 89:59-63; March 1972. Suggests that very shortly "studying" about the future may be regarded as survival training in our schools—to help youngsters learn how to cope with the mind-reeling changes they'll live with tomorrow. Offers practices such as "Future Histories" and the "Delphi Technique" for consideration by educators building such a curriculum.

The Futurist. Washington, D.C.: World Future Society. A semimonthly journal of forecasts, trends and ideas about the future.

Toffler, Alvin. *Learning 21*. New York: Random House, 1973. This is the working title of a new book by the author of *Future Shock* to be released in September 1974. It will include a sample syllabus and will have suggestions on materials for classroom use in teaching students how to cope with change.

Guideline 5

Leonard, George. *Education and Ecstasy*. New York: Delacorte Press, 1968.

In this description of education as it might be, the child is a "free learner" encountering the new technology and gaining immediate sensual and intellectual reward. Without doubt, the accompanying restoration of joy to the process of education, which is one of Mr. Leonard's key points, is well worth noting and considering in its implementation.

Postman, Neil, and Weingartner, Charles. *The Soft Revolution*. New York: Dell Publishing Co., 1971. Best described as a "cook book" of maxims, homilies, advice, models, case studies, jokes, sayings, and the like that interested persons, most certainly students, can use right now and in the years ahead to work for needed educational change in a nonthreatening way. The "Judo" technique is discussed in detail.

Reich, Charles A. *The Greening of America*. New York: Bantam Books, 1970. Speaks with affirmation of a coming revolution. The author contends that life will be more liberated and more beautiful and that we are being moved in this direction by the "now" generation. This is a challenging version of the future. How it might come about should be of interest to teachers and students and might well increase in them a "reasoned sense of well-being."

Guideline 6

Jung, Charles; Pino, Rene F.; and Corrigan, Robert E. *Research Utilizing Problem Solving*. Portland, Ore.: Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory, 1969. A booklet of systematically organized documents, strategies, and skills for helping educators make professional decisions. Action research is a strong part of the RUPS (called SPUR in this bulletin) model. The techniques of brainstorming and force field analysis are presented as useful and efficient ways for students as well as teachers to work within a research approach to problem solving.

Postman, Neil, and Weingartner, Charles. *Teaching as a Subversive Activity*. New York: Delacorte Press, 1969. Suggests a "new" education based on the inquiry method. The authors contend that only people who have a built-in "crap-detector," who can think for themselves, can keep our democratic heritage alive in a time of unprecedented complexity and breath-taking change.

Raths, Louis E., et al. *Teaching for Thinking*. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co., 1967. The authors put forth a theory of thinking which relates thinking experience to various facets of a child's behavior. Moreover, in showing how to encourage pupils' thinking within the framework of the existing curriculum, many practical, specific techniques are offered.

Sanders, Norris M. *Classroom Questions*. New York: Harper and Row, 1966. A book that discusses and provides examples of seven different kinds of questions. Self-growth checks are provided at chapter ends. Practice with questioning, as that described, should develop more effective and diversified thinking on the part of students or adults. (See "Inquiry Training" activity on page — of this bulletin.)

The O.M. Collective. *The Organizer's Manual*. New York: Bantam Books, 1971. Born of the national student strike of May 1970, this paperback is written for all people who want fundamental social change. The book is skill-oriented and provides an interesting perspective on what is needed (deep-going social changes) and how to make happen what is needed (put into systematic practice the how-to-do-it suggestions). Chapter 7 contains

some worthwhile ideas for developing critical and analytical abilities on the part of students.

Guideline 7

Galvin, Kathleen, and Book, Cassandra. *Speech/Communication*. Skokie, Ill.: National Textbook Co., 1972. A helpful paperback that offers several models for communication as well as exercises in one-to-one and one-to-group communications for the purpose of strengthening one's ability to encode and decode messages. The chapter on "Intrapersonal Communication" and the annotated bibliography are also valuable.

Johnson, David W. *Reaching Out*. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall 1972. Provides the theory and experiences necessary to develop effective interpersonal skills. All exercises are presented in a context that gives meaning to reader's experiences in participating in the exercises. This paperback can be used for training people at all age levels.

Jung, Charles, et al. *Interpersonal Communications*. Portland, Ore.: Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory, 1971. A series of twenty units that can be adapted for classroom training in verbal and nonverbal interpersonal communication skills. A "Do-Look-Learn" teaching procedure facilitates the learning, which is accomplished through a helping rather than evaluative relationship among learners.

NTL Learning Resources Corporation, 1812 K St. N.W., Washington, D.C., 20006. An organization that provides training resources, consultants, and exercises in affective education to include work with value training and interpersonal communications education.

Guideline 8

Glasser, William. *Schools Without Failure*. New York: Harper and Row, 1969. Applying Dr. Glasser's theories of Reality Therapy to contemporary education, the book deals specifically with the problem of failure. It describes "Class Meeting" activity and a suggested grading system among various ways for teachers to work with basic human needs and develop a success orientation with students.

Greer, Mary, and Rubinstein, Bonnie. *Will the Real Teacher Please Stand Up?* Pacific Palisades, Calif.: Goodyear Publishing Co., 1972. Delightful and worthwhile reading! A kind of "Whole-Earth Catalog" for education, this paperback offers specific techniques as well as background pieces that could be rather easily adapted for use by teachers as they aid pupils in facing change. (See "Resources" activity on page — of this bulletin for an example of such adapting.)

Harris, Thomas A. *I'm OK, You're OK*. New York: Harper and Row, 1969. A fascinating book about Transactional Analysis that confronts the individual with the fact that *he* is responsible for what happens in the future no matter what has happened in the past. It distinguishes three active elements in each person's makeup: the Parent, the Adult, and the Child (P-A-C). The goal of Transactional Analysis is the strengthening and emancipation of the Adult in each person. Overall, TA is a tool to enable

persons to effectively change, to establish self-control and self-direction, and to discover the reality of a freedom of choice.

Schools Are People. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1971. This is a collection of stories about persons whose interrelationships contribute to the successes as well as the sorrows in the fascinating world of the school. The thoughtful reader will find that many of the offerings bring a smile, a stab of self-recognition, or perhaps an increased sensitivity to a positive approach toward working with people.

ATE PUBLICATIONS LIST & ORDER FORM

(1974 Prices Quoted)

Quantity BULLETINS (figure designates BULLETIN number).

- _____ 36 Winds of Change: Teacher Education for the Open Area School, Beaven, Binko, Gilstrap, M. Ishler, R. Ishler, Manolakes, Ross, and Spodek \$3.00 (861-27423).
- _____ 35 To Cope With The Current: Guidelines and Activities for Learning to Deal with Change—Martin \$3.00 (861-27411).
- _____ 34 Students' Rights: A Guide to the Rights of Children, Youth and Future Teachers—Haberman \$2.50 (867-24492).
- _____ 33 Guiding Student Teaching Experiences in a Cooperative Structure—Kerber and Protheroe \$2.50 (867-24490).
- _____ 32 Teacher Preparation: Supervision and Performance—Spanjer \$2.50 (867-24488).
- _____ 31 Teachers Should be Human Too—Andrew \$2.50 (867-24486).
- _____ 30 The Teaching Clinic: A Team Approach to the Improvement of Teaching—Olsen, Barbour, and Michalak \$1.25 (867-24484).
- _____ 29 Teaching is Communicating: Nonverbal Language in the Classroom—Galloway \$1.00 (867-24482).
- _____ 1 Guiding Student Teaching Experiences—Hilliard and Durrance \$1.00 (867-24466).

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